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Learning Weights for Smart Navigation Planning

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Learning Weights for Smart Navigation Planning

Overview

Generally, the present disclosure is directed to learning costs or weights associated with elements used in navigation planning. In particular, in some implementations, the systems and methods of the present disclosure can include or otherwise leverage one or more machine-learned models to predict a travel cost or weight associated with an element based on properties of the element and/or time data and/or weather data.

Example Figures

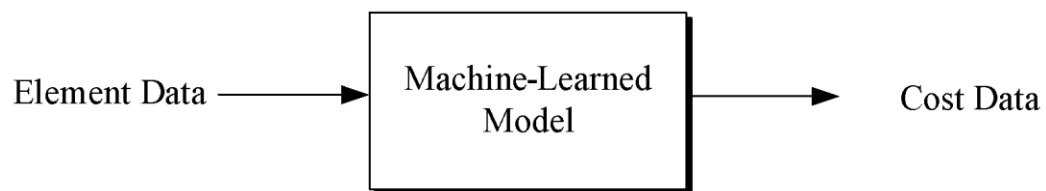


Figure 1

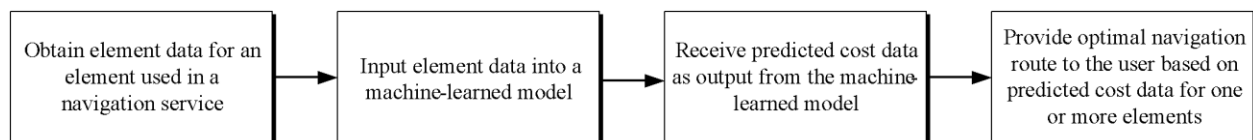


Figure 6

Introduction

Many navigation services attempt to find the fastest route from an origin to a destination along one or more roads, sidewalks, public transit stops, etc. In particular, when navigating along roads, many navigation services use a “cost” or “weight” associated with an element (e.g. a road, speed limit, intersection, stop sign, traffic lights, highway, interstate, residential street, left turn, right turn, interchange, railroad crossings, etc.) to model how much time a real-world vehicle will take to traverse the element. For example, in countries that drive in a right lane on a two-lane road, a left turn at an intersection can take significantly longer than a right turn at the same intersection. For instance, the left turn can require crossing through a lane of oncoming traffic. The cost or weight may further be impacted by time of day, day of week, weather, etc. For example, the left turn may take significantly longer during high volumes of traffic associated with morning or evening commutes (e.g. as oncoming traffic in the left lane prevents the vehicle from turning across the left lane) but may be a trivial task during low volumes of traffic associated with other times. Similarly, in countries that drive in a left lane, a right turn can take significantly longer than a left turn.

Despite their best efforts, many navigation services fail to exactly model the cost associated with an element, resulting in many experienced drivers preferring known routes that are different from the routes suggested by navigation services. For example, the experienced drivers typically have a better understanding of delays associated with traffic lights, railroad crossings, turns (e.g. left turns), etc. on the suggested route and the known route that the driver chooses. Thus, what is needed is a better method of modeling time associated with an element in a navigation service.

Summary

Generally, the present disclosure is directed to learning costs or weights associated with elements used in navigation planning. In particular, in some implementations, the systems and methods of the present disclosure can include or otherwise leverage one or more machine-learned models to predict a travel cost or weight associated with an element based on properties of the element and/or time data and/or weather data.

A computing system can learn a cost or weight associated with an element used in a navigation planning service. For example, the cost or weight can model a time duration that a real-world vehicle will take to traverse a real-world feature corresponding to the element. The element can be, for example, an element corresponding to a real-world road, intersection, interchange, exit, railroad crossing, stop sign, intersection with traffic lights, left turn, right turn, interstate, highway, residential road, or other real-world feature, or combination thereof. In particular, the computing system can employ a machine-learned model to predict a cost associated with an element based on properties of the element, time data, and/or weather data. The predicted cost can be used, for example, to provide an optimal route from an origin to a destination to a user of the navigation planning service.

Input data provided to the machine-learned model can include properties of an element. For instance, properties of the element can be characteristics of a real-world feature corresponding to the element. Properties of the element can be, for example, type (e.g. intersection, intersection with traffic lights, left turn, right turn, lane, direction, highway, interstate, residential street, etc.), location (e.g. by city, state, province, district, country, etc.) and/or characteristics of the location (e.g. gradient, climbing, descending, flat, etc.), curvature,

number of lanes, exact location (e.g. by road, intersection, lane, etc.), pavement type, line type, shoulder type, guardrail type, speed limit, typical speed (may be higher or lower than the speed limit), etc.

Input data can additionally or alternatively include time data. For example, time data can include information corresponding to time of day, day of week, day, month, season, year, combination thereof, or other suitable time information. As an example, time data can represent a time for which the cost is to be determined, as the cost may vary with time. For example, if a user of a navigation service is commuting to work and is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in a route), the time data may be a timestamp or integer corresponding to 8:15 AM. The time data may be for a time before or after a current time or the current. As another example, if it is 8:00 AM when a user of a navigation service plans a route and the user is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in the route), the time data may be a timestamp or integer corresponding to 8:00 AM (e.g. the time at which the route is planned), 8:15 AM (the time at which the user is expected to reach the element), a time after 8:15 AM (e.g. to account for potential user stops or delays), or some other suitable time, or combination thereof. The time data may additionally include day of week and/or date information (e.g. 8:15 AM on Thursday, November 16, 2017), as the cost may vary with day of week and/or date.

Input data can additionally or alternatively include weather data. For example, weather data can include information corresponding to temperature, precipitation type and/or level, wind speed, advisories or warnings, humidity, icing conditions, pressure, UV index, cloud cover, sun direction, or other suitable weather data, or combination thereof. The weather data can be

associated with a time for which a cost is to be determined (e.g. associated with the time data) and or a location for which a cost is to be determined (e.g. associated with location data). For example, the weather data can be current weather data and/or future weather data (e.g. a forecast) associated with a second, minute, hour, day, week, or other suitable time. As another example, the weather data can be associated with the location of the element, such as with a coordinate location, city, county, state, district, province, etc. As an example, if a user of a navigation service is commuting to work and is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM on some day (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in a route), the weather data can be associated with 8:15 AM on the day at the location of element A. As another example, if it is 8:00 AM on some day when a user of a navigation service plans a route and the user is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM on the same day (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in the route), the weather data may be associated with a time such as 8:00 AM on the same day (e.g. the time at which the route is planned), 8:15 AM on the same day (the time at which the user is expected to reach the element), a time after 8:15 AM (e.g. to account for potential user stops or delays), or some other suitable time, or combination thereof.

The machine-learned model can be trained using training data including historical traffic data at one or more elements. For example, the historical traffic data can be sourced with consent from a plurality of users of a navigation service. The historical traffic data can indicate, for example, a position along a route of one of the plurality of users with respect to time. The historical traffic data can be analyzed to determine a travel time associated with the one or more elements. In some embodiments, outlier data (e.g. data from a route in which a user stopped at a gas station or store) can be excluded from the historical traffic data. Historical traffic data can

additionally include example time data and/or example weather data associated with the historical traffic data.

The training data can additionally or alternatively include example input data associated with the one or more elements. For example, the training data can include properties of the one or more elements such as type (e.g. intersection, intersection with traffic lights, left turn, right turn, lane, direction, highway, interstate, residential street, etc.), location (e.g. by city, county, state, province, district, country, ZIP code, etc.) and/or characteristics of the location (e.g. gradient, climbing, descending, flat, etc.), curvature, number of lanes, exact location (e.g. by road, intersection, lane, etc.), pavement type, line type, shoulder type, guardrail type, speed limit, typical speed (may be higher or lower than the speed limit), etc.

Based on the training data, the machine-learned model can learn costs for an element at a desired granularity. For instance, a cost can be associated with a particular element, and/or a plurality of costs can be generalized a category of elements. For instance, costs can be generalized to one or more categories based on input data, such as common or similar properties of the one or more elements that the costs are associated with, time data, and/or weather data. For example, costs can be associated with categories such as highways in a country, left turns at a certain time of day, left turns on a road, directions on a road, or other suitable categories, or a combination thereof. The categories may be chosen arbitrarily or may be chosen to optimize some performance characteristic of the system (e.g. balancing a tradeoff between quality of the navigation service and available computing resources).

Based on the input data and/or training data, the machine-learned model can predict a cost or weight associated with the one or more elements. For example, the cost can correspond to

a time duration that a real-world vehicle would take to traverse a real-world feature corresponding to the element. The cost can be associated with a time (e.g. a second, minute, hour, day, etc.) and/or weather condition (e.g. temperature, precipitation type and/or level, wind speed, advisories or warnings, humidity, icing conditions, pressure, UV index, cloud cover, sun direction, etc.).

One or more examples are given below to illustrate example operation of the system. The examples are generally simplified to illustrate principles of operation of the machine-learned model. It should be understood that the machine-learned model can be trained to understand considerably more complex patterns within the input data. For example, the examples below contain a category including five right turns on a road, but the categories may be considerably more complex (e.g. all right turns at a certain gradient, road, intersection type, etc. at a certain time of day on a certain day of week). As another example, the machine-learned model may not operate using categories and may instead predict a category based on characteristics of a certain element compared to historical training data for one or more elements sharing one or more characteristics with the certain element.

For example, the training data may indicate that five right turns off of a certain road each historically have a similar cost. For instance, it can take a real-world vehicle a similar amount of time to perform a right turn at all five right turns (e.g. intersections) on the road. For the sake of simplicity, the training data can indicate that no other factors (e.g. time of day, weather, etc.) affect the cost of a right turn off of the road. Input data can be provided to the model for a sixth right turn on the same road. For example, the model may not have been trained using training data from the sixth right turn. Based on the input data, the machine-learned model can predict a

cost for the sixth right turn that is similar to the five right turns. As another example, if input data is provided to the machine-learned model for one of the five right turns, the machine-learned model can predict a cost based on the historical cost of the right turn.

As another example, the training data may indicate that rainy weather causes a 10% increase in cost for all right turns in a category including the five right turns of the above example. Based on the training data, if input data for one of the five right turns during rainy weather is provided, the machine-learned model may predict a cost that is 10% higher than the historical cost of the right turn.

As another example, the training data may indicate conditions for a time of day, day of week, date, etc. For example, the training data may indicate that a railroad crossing is closed during a certain time of day (e.g. by train schedules or historical traffic data). Based on the training data, if input data for the railroad crossing is provided at the certain time of day, the model may predict a high cost for the railroad crossing. If input data is provided for the railroad crossing at a different time of day, however (e.g. a time of day where the railroad crossing is not closed), the model may predict a considerably lower cost for the railroad crossing.

Based on the predicted cost, an optimal route from an origin to a destination can be provided by a navigation service to a user. For example, the optimal route can be provided by chaining costs of one or more elements along a route and minimizing total cost. In some embodiments, the navigation service can consider variance in the route. For example, it may be desirable to provide a route with a slightly higher cost with less variance (e.g. fewer railroad crossings, traffic lights, etc.) to prevent the possibility that the high variance results in a “worst

case” route for the user (e.g. wherein the user has to stop at many or all traffic lights along the route, has to stop to allow a train to pass, etc.).

Further to the descriptions above, a user may be provided with controls allowing the user to make an election as to both if and when systems, programs or features described herein may enable collection of user information (e.g., historical traffic data collected from one or more users), and if the user is sent content or communications from a server. In addition, certain data may be treated in one or more ways before it is stored or used, so that personally identifiable information is removed. For example, a user’s identity may be treated so that no personally identifiable information can be determined for the user, or a user’s geographic location may be generalized where location information is obtained (such as to a city, ZIP code, or state level), so that a particular location of a user cannot be determined. Thus, the user may have control over what information is collected about the user, how that information is used, and what information is provided to the user.

Thus, a computing system can learn costs or weights associated with one or more elements and predict a cost associated with a given element. This can allow navigation services to operate in a finer-grained manner, where costs can be associated with individual elements or elements sharing high degree of similarity without requiring manual measurement or estimation of a cost for each element. Additionally, the costs can easily be generalized to improve operation characteristics of the system or navigation service.

Detailed Description

As described above, the present disclosure is directed to learning costs or weights associated with elements used in navigation planning. In particular, in some implementations, the

systems and methods of the present disclosure can include or otherwise leverage one or more machine-learned models to predict a travel cost or weight associated with an element based on properties of the element and/or time data and/or weather data.

Figure 1 depicts a block diagram of an example machine-learned model according to example implementations of the present disclosure. As illustrated in Figure 1, in some implementations, the machine-learned model is trained to receive input data of one or more types and, in response, provide output data of one or more types. Thus, Figure 1 illustrates the machine-learned model performing inference.

In some implementations, the input data can include one or more features that are associated with an instance or an example. In some implementations, the one or more features associated with the instance or example can be organized into a feature vector. In some implementations, the output data can include one or more predictions. Predictions can also be referred to as inferences. Thus, given features associated with a particular instance, the machine-learned model can output a prediction for such instance based on the features.

The machine-learned model can be or include one or more of various different types of machine-learned models. In particular, in some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform classification, regression, clustering, anomaly detection, recommendation generation, and/or other tasks.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform various types of classification based on the input data. For example, the machine-learned model can perform binary classification or multiclass classification. In binary classification, the output data can include a classification of the input data into one of two different classes. In multiclass

classification, the output data can include a classification of the input data into one (or more) of more than two classes. The classifications can be single label or multi-label.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform discrete categorical classification in which the input data is simply classified into one or more classes or categories.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform classification in which the machine-learned model provides, for each of one or more classes, a numerical value descriptive of a degree to which it is believed that the input data should be classified into the corresponding class. In some instances, the numerical values provided by the machine-learned model can be referred to as “confidence scores” that are indicative of a respective confidence associated with classification of the input into the respective class. In some implementations, the confidence scores can be compared to one or more thresholds to render a discrete categorical prediction. In some implementations, only a certain number of classes (e.g., one) with the relatively largest confidence scores can be selected to render a discrete categorical prediction.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can provide a probabilistic classification. For example, the machine-learned model can be able to predict, given a sample input, a probability distribution over a set of classes. Thus, rather than outputting only the most likely class to which the sample input should belong, the machine-learned model can output, for each class, a probability that the sample input belongs to such class. In some implementations, the probability distribution over all possible classes can sum to one. In some implementations, a softmax function or layer can be used to squash a set of real values respectively associated with the possible classes to a set of real values in the range $(0, 1)$ that sum to one.

In some implementations, the probabilities provided by the probability distribution can be compared to one or more thresholds to render a discrete categorical prediction. In some implementations, only a certain number of classes (e.g., one) with the relatively largest predicted probability can be selected to render a discrete categorical prediction.

In some implementations in which the machine-learned model performs classification, the machine-learned model can be trained using supervised learning techniques. For example, the machine-learned model can be trained on a training dataset that includes training examples labeled as belonging (or not belonging) to one or more classes. Further details regarding supervised training techniques are provided below.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform regression to provide output data in the form of a continuous numeric value. The continuous numeric value can correspond to any number of different metrics or numeric representations, including, for example, currency values, scores, or other numeric representations. As examples, the machine-learned model can perform linear regression, polynomial regression, or nonlinear regression. As examples, the machine-learned model can perform simple regression or multiple regression. As described above, in some implementations, a softmax function or layer can be used to squash a set of real values respectively associated with a two or more possible classes to a set of real values in the range (0, 1) that sum to one.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform various types of clustering. For example, the machine-learned model can identify one or more previously-defined clusters to which the input data most likely corresponds. As another example, the machine-learned model can identify one or more clusters within the input data. That is, in instances in

which the input data includes multiple objects, documents, or other entities, the machine-learned model can sort the multiple entities included in the input data into a number of clusters. In some implementations in which the machine-learned model performs clustering, the machine-learned model can be trained using unsupervised learning techniques.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform anomaly detection or outlier detection. For example, the machine-learned model can identify input data that does not conform to an expected pattern or other characteristic (e.g., as previously observed from previous input data). As examples, the anomaly detection can be used for fraud detection or system failure detection.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can provide output data in the form of one or more recommendations. For example, the machine-learned model can be included in a recommendation system or engine. As an example, given input data that describes previous outcomes for certain entities (e.g., a score, ranking, or rating indicative of an amount of success or enjoyment), the machine-learned model can output a suggestion or recommendation of one or more additional entities that, based on the previous outcomes, are expected to have a desired outcome (e.g., elicit a score, ranking, or rating indicative of success or enjoyment). As one example, given input data descriptive of a number of products purchased or rated highly by a user, a recommendation system can output a suggestion or recommendation of an additional product that the user might enjoy or wish to purchase.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can act as an agent within an environment. For example, the machine-learned model can be trained using reinforcement learning, which will be discussed in further detail below.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be a parametric model while, in other implementations, the machine-learned model can be a non-parametric model. In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be a linear model while, in other implementations, the machine-learned model can be a non-linear model.

As described above, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more of various different types of machine-learned models. Examples of such different types of machine-learned models are provided below for illustration. One or more of the example models described below can be used (e.g., combined) to provide the output data in response to the input data. Additional models beyond the example models provided below can be used as well.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more classifier models such as, for example, linear classification models; quadratic classification models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more regression models such as, for example, simple linear regression models; multiple linear regression models; logistic regression models; stepwise regression models; multivariate adaptive regression splines; locally estimated scatterplot smoothing models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more decision tree-based models such as, for example, classification and/or regression trees; iterative dichotomiser 3 decision trees; C4.5 decision trees; chi-squared automatic interaction detection decision trees; decision stumps; conditional decision trees; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more kernel machines. In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more support vector machines.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more instance-based learning models such as, for example, learning vector quantization models; self-organizing map models; locally weighted learning models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more nearest neighbor models such as, for example, k-nearest neighbor classifications models; k-nearest neighbors regression models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more Bayesian models such as, for example, naïve Bayes models; Gaussian naïve Bayes models; multinomial naïve Bayes models; averaged one-dependence estimators; Bayesian networks; Bayesian belief networks; hidden Markov models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more artificial neural networks (also referred to simply as neural networks). A neural network can include a group of connected nodes, which also can be referred to as neurons or perceptrons. A neural network can be organized into one or more layers. Neural networks that include multiple layers can be referred to as “deep” networks. A deep network can include an input layer, an output layer, and one or more hidden layers positioned between the input layer and the output layer. The nodes of the neural network can be connected or non-fully connected.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more feed forward neural networks. In feed forward networks, the connections between nodes do not form

a cycle. For example, each connection can connect a node from an earlier layer to a node from a later layer.

In some instances, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more recurrent neural networks. In some instances, at least some of the nodes of a recurrent neural network can form a cycle. Recurrent neural networks can be especially useful for processing input data that is sequential in nature. In particular, in some instances, a recurrent neural network can pass or retain information from a previous portion of the input data sequence to a subsequent portion of the input data sequence through the use of recurrent or directed cyclical node connections.

As one example, sequential input data can include time-series data (e.g., sensor data versus time or imagery captured at different times). For example, a recurrent neural network can analyze sensor data versus time to detect or predict a swipe direction, to perform handwriting recognition, etc. As another example, sequential input data can include words in a sentence (e.g., for natural language processing, speech detection or processing, etc.); notes in a musical composition; sequential actions taken by a user (e.g., to detect or predict sequential application usage); sequential object states; etc.

Example recurrent neural networks include long short-term (LSTM) recurrent neural networks; gated recurrent units; bi-direction recurrent neural networks; continuous time recurrent neural networks; neural history compressors; echo state networks; Elman networks; Jordan networks; recursive neural networks; Hopfield networks; fully recurrent networks; sequence-to-sequence configurations; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more convolutional neural networks. In some instances, a convolutional neural network can include

one or more convolutional layers that perform convolutions over input data using learned filters. Filters can also be referred to as kernels. Convolutional neural networks can be especially useful for vision problems such as when the input data includes imagery such as still images or video. However, convolutional neural networks can also be applied for natural language processing.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more generative networks such as, for example, generative adversarial networks. Generative networks can be used to generate new data such as new images or other content.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include an autoencoder. In some instances, the aim of an autoencoder is to learn a representation (e.g., a lower-dimensional encoding) for a set of data, typically for the purpose of dimensionality reduction. For example, in some instances, an autoencoder can seek to encode the input data and then provide output data that reconstructs the input data from the encoding. Recently, the autoencoder concept has become more widely used for learning generative models of data. In some instances, the autoencoder can include additional losses beyond reconstructing the input data.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be or include one or more other forms of artificial neural networks such as, for example, deep Boltzmann machines; deep belief networks; stacked autoencoders; etc. Any of the neural networks described herein can be combined (e.g., stacked) to form more complex networks.

In some implementations, one or more neural networks can be used to provide an embedding based on the input data. For example, the embedding can be a representation of knowledge abstracted from the input data into one or more learned dimensions. In some instances, embeddings can be a useful source for identifying related entities. In some instances

embeddings can be extracted from the output of the network, while in other instances embeddings can be extracted from any hidden node or layer of the network (e.g., a close to final but not final layer of the network). Embeddings can be useful for performing auto suggest next video, product suggestion, entity or object recognition, etc. In some instances, embeddings be useful inputs for downstream models. For example, embeddings can be useful to generalize input data (e.g., search queries) for a downstream model or processing system.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can include one or more clustering models such as, for example, k-means clustering models; k-medians clustering models; expectation maximization models; hierarchical clustering models; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform one or more dimensionality reduction techniques such as, for example, principal component analysis; kernel principal component analysis; graph-based kernel principal component analysis; principal component regression; partial least squares regression; Sammon mapping; multidimensional scaling; projection pursuit; linear discriminant analysis; mixture discriminant analysis; quadratic discriminant analysis; generalized discriminant analysis; flexible discriminant analysis; autoencoding; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can perform or be subjected to one or more reinforcement learning techniques such as Markov decision processes; dynamic programming; Q functions or Q-learning; value function approaches; deep Q-networks; differentiable neural computers; asynchronous advantage actor-critics; deterministic policy gradient; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be an autoregressive model. In some instances, an autoregressive model can specify that the output data depends linearly on its own previous values and on a stochastic term. In some instances, an autoregressive model can take the form of a stochastic difference equation. One example autoregressive model is WaveNet, which is a generative model for raw audio.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can include or form part of a multiple model ensemble. As one example, bootstrap aggregating can be performed, which can also be referred to as “bagging.” In bootstrap aggregating, a training dataset is split into a number of subsets (e.g., through random sampling with replacement) and a plurality of models are respectively trained on the number of subsets. At inference time, respective outputs of the plurality of models can be combined (e.g., through averaging, voting, or other techniques) and used as the output of the ensemble.

One example model ensemble is a random forest, which can also be referred to as a random decision forest. Random forests are an ensemble learning method for classification, regression, and other tasks. Random forests are generated by producing a plurality of decision trees at training time. In some instances, at inference time, the class that is the mode of the classes (classification) or the mean prediction (regression) of the individual trees can be used as the output of the forest. Random decision forests can correct for decision trees' tendency to overfit their training set.

Another example ensemble technique is stacking, which can, in some instances, be referred to as stacked generalization. Stacking includes training a combiner model to blend or otherwise combine the predictions of several other machine-learned models. Thus, a plurality of

machine-learned models (e.g., of same or different type) can be trained based on training data. In addition, a combiner model can be trained to take the predictions from the other machine-learned models as inputs and, in response, produce a final inference or prediction. In some instances, a single-layer logistic regression model can be used as the combiner model.

Another example ensemble technique is boosting. Boosting can include incrementally building an ensemble by iteratively training weak models and then adding to a final strong model. For example, in some instances, each new model can be trained to emphasize the training examples that previous models misinterpreted (e.g., misclassified). For example, a weight associated with each of such misinterpreted examples can be increased. One common implementation of boosting is AdaBoost, which can also be referred to as Adaptive Boosting. Other example boosting techniques include LPBoost; TotalBoost; BrownBoost; xgboost; MadaBoost, LogitBoost, gradient boosting; etc.

Furthermore, any of the models described above (e.g., regression models and artificial neural networks) can be combined to form an ensemble. As an example, an ensemble can include a top level machine-learned model or a heuristic function to combine and/or weight the outputs of the models that form the ensemble.

In some implementations, multiple machine-learned models (e.g., that form an ensemble) can be linked and trained jointly (e.g., through backpropagation of errors sequentially through the model ensemble). However, in some implementations, only a subset (e.g., one) of the jointly trained models is used for inference.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be used to preprocess the input data for subsequent input into another model. For example, the machine-learned model can

perform dimensionality reduction techniques and embeddings (e.g., matrix factorization, principal components analysis, singular value decomposition, word2vec/GLOVE, and/or related approaches); clustering; and even classification and regression for downstream consumption. Many of these techniques have been discussed above and will be further discussed below.

Referring again to Figure 1, and as discussed above, the machine-learned model can be trained or otherwise configured to receive the input data and, in response, provide the output data. The input data can include different types, forms, or variations of input data. As examples, in various implementations, the input data can include properties of an element. For instance, properties of the element can be characteristics of a real-world feature corresponding to the element. Properties of the element can be, for example, type (e.g. intersection, intersection with traffic lights, left turn, right turn, lane, direction, highway, interstate, residential street, etc.), location (e.g. by city, state, province, district, country, etc.) and/or characteristics of the location (e.g. gradient, climbing, descending, flat, etc.), curvature, number of lanes, exact location (e.g. by road, intersection, lane, etc.), pavement type, line type, shoulder type, guardrail type, speed limit, typical speed (may be higher or lower than the speed limit), etc.

Input data can additionally or alternatively include time data. For example, time data can include information corresponding to time of day, day of week, day, month, season, year, combination thereof, or other suitable time information. As an example, time data can represent a time for which the cost is to be determined, as the cost may vary with time. For example, if a user of a navigation service is commuting to work and is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in a route), the time data may be a timestamp or integer corresponding to 8:15 AM. The time data may be for a time before or after a current

time or the current. As another example, if it is 8:00 AM when a user of a navigation service plans a route and the user is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in the route), the time data may be a timestamp or integer corresponding to 8:00 AM (e.g. the time at which the route is planned), 8:15 AM (the time at which the user is expected to reach the element), a time after 8:15 AM (e.g. to account for potential user stops or delays), or some other suitable time, or combination thereof. The time data may additionally include day of week and/or date information (e.g. 8:15 AM on Thursday, November 16, 2017), as the cost may vary with day of week and/or date.

Input data can additionally or alternatively include weather data. For example, weather data can include information corresponding to temperature, precipitation type and/or level, wind speed, advisories or warnings, humidity, icing conditions, pressure, UV index, cloud cover, sun direction, or other suitable weather data, or combination thereof. The weather data can be associated with a time for which a cost is to be determined (e.g. associated with the time data) and or a location for which a cost is to be determined (e.g. associated with location data). For example, the weather data can be current weather data and/or future weather data (e.g. a forecast) associated with a second, minute, hour, day, week, or other suitable time. As another example, the weather data can be associated with the location of the element, such as with a coordinate location, city, county, state, district, province, etc. As an example, if a user of a navigation service is commuting to work and is expected to reach element A at 8:15 AM on some day (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in a route), the weather data can be associated with 8:15 AM on the day at the location of element A. As another example, if it is 8:00 AM on some day when a user of a navigation service plans a route and the user is expected to reach element A

at 8:15 AM on the same day (e.g. from costs associated with prior elements in the route), the weather data may be associated with a time such as 8:00 AM on the same day (e.g. the time at which the route is planned), 8:15 AM on the same day (the time at which the user is expected to reach the element), a time after 8:15 AM (e.g. to account for potential user stops or delays), or some other suitable time, or combination thereof.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can receive and use the input data in its raw form. In some implementations, the raw input data can be preprocessed. Thus, in addition or alternatively to the raw input data, the machine-learned model can receive and use the preprocessed input data.

In some implementations, preprocessing the input data can include extracting one or more additional features from the raw input data. For example, feature extraction techniques can be applied to the input data to generate one or more new, additional features. Example feature extraction techniques include edge detection; corner detection; blob detection; ridge detection; scale-invariant feature transform; motion detection; optical flow; Hough transform; etc.

In some implementations, the extracted features can include or be derived from transformations of the input data into other domains and/or dimensions. As an example, the extracted features can include or be derived from transformations of the input data into the frequency domain. For example, wavelet transformations and/or fast Fourier transforms can be performed on the input data to generate additional features.

In some implementations, the extracted features can include statistics calculated from the input data or certain portions or dimensions of the input data. Example statistics include the mode, mean, maximum, minimum, or other metrics of the input data or portions thereof.

In some implementations, as described above, the input data can be sequential in nature. In some instances, the sequential input data can be generated by sampling or otherwise segmenting a stream of input data. As one example, frames can be extracted from a video. In some implementations, sequential data can be made non-sequential through summarization.

As another example preprocessing technique, portions of the input data can be imputed. For example, additional synthetic input data can be generated through interpolation and/or extrapolation.

As another example preprocessing technique, some or all of the input data can be scaled, standardized, normalized, generalized, and/or regularized. Example regularization techniques include ridge regression; least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO); elastic net; least-angle regression; cross-validation; L1 regularization; L2 regularization; etc. As one example, some or all of the input data can be normalized by subtracting the mean across a given dimension's feature values from each individual feature value and then dividing by the standard deviation or other metric.

As another example preprocessing technique, some or all of the input data can be quantized or discretized. As yet another example, qualitative features or variables included in the input data can be converted to quantitative features or variables. For example, one hot encoding can be performed.

In some implementations, dimensionality reduction techniques can be applied to the input data prior to input into the machine-learned model. Several examples of dimensionality reduction techniques are provided above, including, for example, principal component analysis; kernel principal component analysis; graph-based kernel principal component analysis; principal

component regression; partial least squares regression; Sammon mapping; multidimensional scaling; projection pursuit; linear discriminant analysis; mixture discriminant analysis; quadratic discriminant analysis; generalized discriminant analysis; flexible discriminant analysis; autoencoding; etc.

In some implementations, during training, the input data can be intentionally deformed in any number of ways to increase model robustness, generalization, or other qualities. Example techniques to deform the input data include adding noise; changing color, shade, or hue; magnification; segmentation; amplification; etc.

Referring again to Figure 1, in response to receipt of the input data, the machine-learned model can provide the output data. The output data can include different types, forms, or variations of output data. As examples, in various implementations, the output data can include a cost or weight associated with the one or more elements. For example, the cost can correspond to a time duration that a real-world vehicle would take to traverse a real-world feature corresponding to the element. The cost can be associated with a time (e.g. a second, minute, hour, day, etc.) and/or weather condition (e.g. temperature, precipitation type and/or level, wind speed, advisories or warnings, humidity, icing conditions, pressure, UV index, cloud cover, sun direction, etc.).

As discussed above, in some implementations, the output data can include various types of classification data (e.g., binary classification, multiclass classification, single label, multi-label, discrete classification, regressive classification, probabilistic classification, etc.) or can include various types of regressive data (e.g., linear regression, polynomial regression, nonlinear regression, simple regression, multiple regression, etc.). In other instances, the output data can

include clustering data, anomaly detection data, recommendation data, or any of the other forms of output data discussed above.

In some implementations, the output data can influence downstream processes or decision making. As one example, in some implementations, the output data can be interpreted and/or acted upon by a rules-based regulator.

Thus, the present disclosure provides systems and methods that include or otherwise leverage one or more machine-learned models to predict a travel cost or weight associated with an element based on properties of the element and/or time data and/or weather data. Any of the different types or forms of input data described above can be combined with any of the different types or forms of machine-learned models described above to provide any of the different types or forms of output data described above.

The systems and methods of the present disclosure can be implemented by or otherwise executed on one or more computing devices. Example computing devices include user computing devices (e.g., laptops, desktops, and mobile computing devices such as tablets, smartphones, wearable computing devices, etc.); embedded computing devices (e.g., devices embedded within a vehicle, camera, image sensor, industrial machine, satellite, gaming console or controller, or home appliance such as a refrigerator, thermostat, energy meter, home energy manager, smart home assistant, etc.); server computing devices (e.g., database servers, parameter servers, file servers, mail servers, print servers, web servers, game servers, application servers, etc.); dedicated, specialized model processing or training devices; virtual computing devices; other computing devices or computing infrastructure; or combinations thereof.

Thus, in some implementations, the machine-learned model can be stored at and/or implemented locally by an embedded device or a user computing device such as a mobile device. Output data obtained through local implementation of the machine-learned model at the embedded device or the user computing device can be used to improve performance of the embedded device or the user computing device (e.g., an application implemented by the embedded device or the user computing device). As one example, Figure 2 illustrates a block diagram of an example computing device that stores and implements a machine-learned model locally.

In other implementations, the machine-learned model can be stored at and/or implemented by a server computing device. In some instances, output data obtained through implementation of the machine-learned model at the server computing device can be used to improve other server tasks or can be used by other non-user devices to improve services performed by or for such other non-user devices. For example, the output data can improve other downstream processes performed by the server computing device for a user computing device or embedded computing device. In other instances, output data obtained through implementation of the machine-learned model at the server computing device can be sent to and used by a user computing device, an embedded computing device, or some other client device. For example, the server computing device can be said to perform machine learning as a service. As one example, Figure 3 illustrates a block diagram of an example client computing device that can communicate over a network with an example server computing system that includes a machine-learned model.

In yet other implementations, different respective portions of the machine-learned model can be stored at and/or implemented by some combination of a user computing device; an embedded computing device; a server computing device; etc.

Computing devices can perform graph processing techniques or other machine learning techniques using one or more machine learning platforms, frameworks, and/or libraries, such as, for example, TensorFlow, Caffe/Caffe2, Theano, Torch/PyTorch, MXnet, CNTK, etc.

Computing devices can be distributed at different physical locations and connected via one or more networks. Distributed computing devices can operate according to sequential computing architectures, parallel computing architectures, or combinations thereof. In one example, distributed computing devices can be controlled or guided through use of a parameter server.

In some implementations, multiple instances of the machine-learned model can be parallelized to provide increased processing throughput. For example, the multiple instances of the machine-learned model can be parallelized on a single processing device or computing device or parallelized across multiple processing devices or computing devices.

Each computing device that implements the machine-learned model or other aspects of the present disclosure can include a number of hardware components that enable performance of the techniques described herein. For example, each computing device can include one or more memory devices that store some or all of the machine-learned model. For example, the machine-learned model can be a structured numerical representation that is stored in memory. The one or more memory devices can also include instructions for implementing the machine-learned model

or performing other operations. Example memory devices include RAM, ROM, EEPROM, EPROM, flash memory devices, magnetic disks, etc., and combinations thereof.

Each computing device can also include one or more processing devices that implement some or all of the machine-learned model and/or perform other related operations. Example processing devices include one or more of: a central processing unit (CPU); a visual processing unit (VPU); a graphics processing unit (GPU); a tensor processing unit (TPU); a neural processing unit (NPU); a neural processing engine; a core of a CPU, VPU, GPU, TPU, NPU or other processing device; an application specific integrated circuit (ASIC); a field programmable gate array (FPGA); a co-processor; a controller; or combinations of the processing devices described above. Processing devices can be embedded within other hardware components such as, for example, an image sensor, accelerometer, etc.

Hardware components (e.g., memory devices and/or processing devices) can be spread across multiple physically distributed computing devices and/or virtually distributed computing systems.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be trained at a training computing system and then provided for storage and/or implementation at one or more computing devices, as described above. For example, a model trainer can be located at the training computing system. The training computing system can be included in or separate from the one or more computing devices that implement the machine-learned model. As one example, Figure 4 illustrates a block diagram of an example computing device in communication with an example training computing system that includes a model trainer.

In some implementations, the model can be trained in an offline fashion or an online fashion. In offline training (also known as batch learning), a model is trained on the entirety of a static set of training data. In online learning, the model is continuously trained (or re-trained) as new training data becomes available (e.g., while the model is used to perform inference).

In some implementations, the model trainer can perform centralized training of the machine-learned models (e.g., based on a centrally stored dataset). In other implementations, decentralized training techniques such as distributed training, federated learning, or the like can be used to train, update, or personalize the machine-learned models.

The machine-learned models described herein can be trained according to one or more of various different training types or techniques. For example, in some implementations, the machine-learned models can be trained using supervised learning, in which the machine-learned model is trained on a training dataset that includes instances or examples that have labels. The labels can be manually applied by experts, generated through crowd-sourcing, or provided by other techniques (e.g., by physics-based or complex mathematical models). In some implementations, if the user has provided consent, the training examples can be provided by the user computing device. In some implementations, this process can be referred to as personalizing the model.

As one example, Figure 5 illustrates a block diagram of an example training process in which a machine-learned model is trained on training data that includes example input data that has labels. Training processes other than the example process depicted in Figure 5 can be used as well.

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be trained using training data including historical traffic data at one or more elements. For example, the historical traffic data can be sourced with consent from a plurality of users of a navigation service. The historical traffic data can indicate, for example, a position along a route of one of the plurality of users with respect to time. The historical traffic data can be analyzed to determine a travel time associated with the one or more elements. In some embodiments, outlier data (e.g. data from a route in which a user stopped at a gas station or store) can be excluded from the historical traffic data. Historical traffic data can additionally include example time data and/or example weather data associated with the historical traffic data.

The training data can additionally or alternatively include example input data associated with the one or more elements. For example, the training data can include properties of the one or more elements such as type (e.g. intersection, intersection with traffic lights, left turn, right turn, lane, direction, highway, interstate, residential street, etc.), location (e.g. by city, county, state, province, district, country, ZIP code, etc.) and/or characteristics of the location (e.g. gradient, climbing, descending, flat, etc.), curvature, number of lanes, exact location (e.g. by road, intersection, lane, etc.), pavement type, line type, shoulder type, guardrail type, speed limit, typical speed (may be higher or lower than the speed limit), etc.

Based on the training data, the machine-learned model can learn costs for an element at a desired granularity. For instance, a cost can be associated with a particular element, and/or a plurality of costs can be generalized a category of elements. For instance, costs can be generalized to one or more categories based on input data, such as common or similar properties of the one or more elements that the costs are associated with, time data, and/or weather data. For

example, costs can be associated with categories such as highways in a country, left turns at a certain time of day, left turns on a road, directions on a road, or other suitable categories, or a combination thereof. The categories may be chosen arbitrarily or may be chosen to optimize some performance characteristic of the system (e.g. balancing a tradeoff between quality of the navigation service and available computing resources).

In some implementations, the machine-learned model can be trained by optimizing an objective function. For example, in some implementations, the objective function can be or include a loss function that compares (e.g., determines a difference between) output data generated by the model from the training data and labels (e.g., ground-truth labels) associated with the training data. For example, the loss function can evaluate a sum or mean of squared differences between the output data and the labels. As another example, the objective function can be or include a cost function that describes a cost of a certain outcome or output data. Other objective functions can include margin-based techniques such as, for example, triplet loss or maximum-margin training.

One or more of various optimization techniques can be performed to optimize the objective function. For example, the optimization technique(s) can minimize or maximize the objective function. Example optimization techniques include Hessian-based techniques and gradient-based techniques, such as, for example, coordinate descent; gradient descent (e.g., stochastic gradient descent); subgradient methods; etc. Other optimization techniques include black box optimization techniques and heuristics.

In some implementations, backward propagation of errors can be used in conjunction with an optimization technique (e.g., gradient based techniques) to train a model (e.g., a multi-

layer model such as an artificial neural network). For example, an iterative cycle of propagation and model parameter (e.g., weights) update can be performed to train the model. Example backpropagation techniques include truncated backpropagation through time, Levenberg-Marquardt backpropagation, etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be trained using unsupervised learning techniques. Unsupervised learning can include inferring a function to describe hidden structure from unlabeled data. For example, a classification or categorization may not be included in the data. Unsupervised learning techniques can be used to produce machine-learned models capable of performing clustering, anomaly detection, learning latent variable models, or other tasks.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be trained using semi-supervised techniques which combine aspects of supervised learning and unsupervised learning.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be trained or otherwise generated through evolutionary techniques or genetic algorithms.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be trained using reinforcement learning. In reinforcement learning, an agent (e.g., model) can take actions in an environment and learn to maximize rewards and/or minimize penalties that result from such actions. Reinforcement learning can differ from the supervised learning problem in that correct input/output pairs are not presented, nor sub-optimal actions explicitly corrected.

In some implementations, one or more generalization techniques can be performed during training to improve the generalization of the machine-learned model. Generalization techniques

can help reduce overfitting of the machine-learned model to the training data. Example generalization techniques include dropout techniques; weight decay techniques; batch normalization; early stopping; subset selection; stepwise selection; etc.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can include or otherwise be impacted by a number of hyperparameters, such as, for example, learning rate, number of layers, number of nodes in each layer, number of leaves in a tree, number of clusters; etc. Hyperparameters can affect model performance. Hyperparameters can be hand selected or can be automatically selected through application of techniques such as, for example, grid search; black box optimization techniques (e.g., Bayesian optimization, random search, etc.); gradient-based optimization; etc. Example techniques and/or tools for performing automatic hyperparameter optimization include Hyperopt; Auto-WEKA; Spearmint; Metric Optimization Engine (MOE); etc.

In some implementations, various techniques can be used to optimize and/or adapt the learning rate when the model is trained. Example techniques and/or tools for performing learning rate optimization or adaptation include Adagrad; Adaptive Moment Estimation (ADAM); Adadelta; RMSprop; etc.

In some implementations, transfer learning techniques can be used to provide an initial model from which to begin training of the machine-learned models described herein.

In some implementations, the machine-learned models described herein can be included in different portions of computer-readable code on a computing device. In one example, the machine-learned model can be included in a particular application or program and used (e.g., exclusively) by such particular application or program. Thus, in one example, a computing

device can include a number of applications and one or more of such applications can contain its own respective machine learning library and machine-learned model(s).

In another example, the machine-learned models described herein can be included in an operating system of a computing device (e.g., in a central intelligence layer of an operating system) and can be called or otherwise used by one or more applications that interact with the operating system. In some implementations, each application can communicate with the central intelligence layer (and model(s) stored therein) using an application programming interface (API) (e.g., a common, public API across all applications).

In some implementations, the central intelligence layer can communicate with a central device data layer. The central device data layer can be a centralized repository of data for the computing device. The central device data layer can communicate with a number of other components of the computing device, such as, for example, one or more sensors, a context manager, a device state component, and/or additional components. In some implementations, the central device data layer can communicate with each device component using an API (e.g., a private API).

The technology discussed herein makes reference to servers, databases, software applications, and other computer-based systems, as well as actions taken and information sent to and from such systems. The inherent flexibility of computer-based systems allows for a great variety of possible configurations, combinations, and divisions of tasks and functionality between and among components. For instance, processes discussed herein can be implemented using a single device or component or multiple devices or components working in combination.

Databases and applications can be implemented on a single system or distributed across multiple systems. Distributed components can operate sequentially or in parallel.

In addition, the machine learning techniques described herein are readily interchangeable and combinable. Although certain example techniques have been described, many others exist and can be used in conjunction with aspects of the present disclosure.

Thus, while the present subject matter has been described in detail with respect to various specific example implementations, each example is provided by way of explanation, not limitation of the disclosure. One of ordinary skill in the art can readily make alterations to, variations of, and equivalents to such implementations. Accordingly, the subject disclosure does not preclude inclusion of such modifications, variations and/or additions to the present subject matter as would be readily apparent to one of ordinary skill in the art. For instance, features illustrated or described as part of one implementation can be used with another implementation to yield a still further implementation.

A brief overview of example machine-learned models and associated techniques has been provided by the present disclosure. For additional details, readers should review the following references: *Machine Learning A Probabilistic Perspective* (Murphy); *Rules of Machine Learning: Best Practices for ML Engineering* (Zinkevich); *Deep Learning* (Goodfellow); *Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction* (Sutton); and *Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach* (Norvig).

Figures

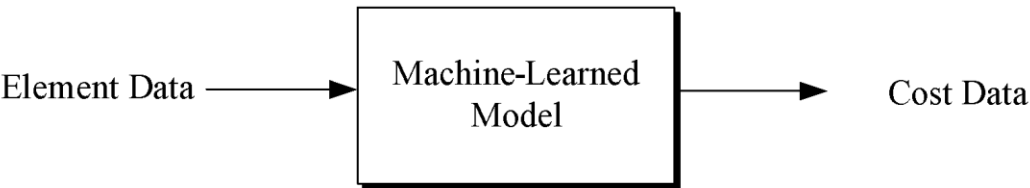


Figure 1

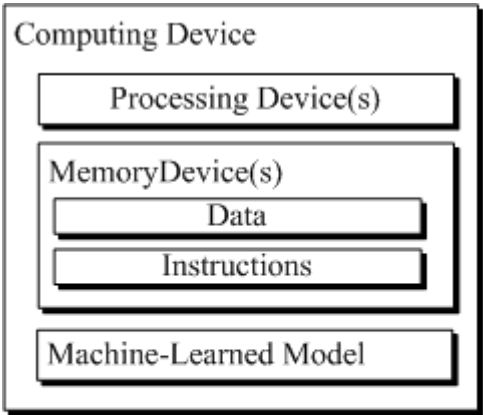


Figure 2

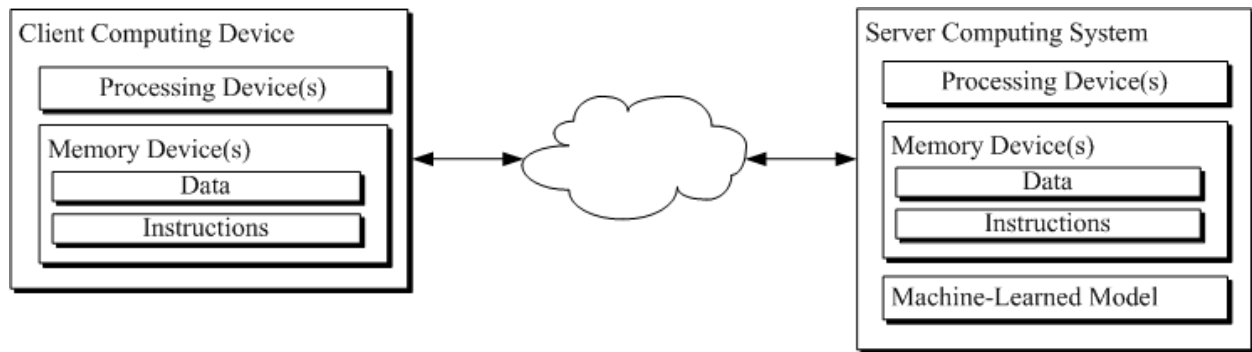


Figure 3

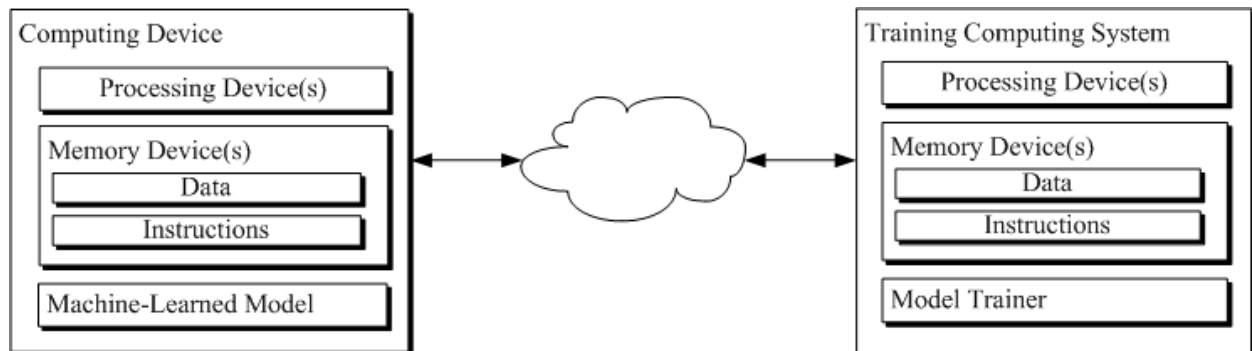


Figure 4

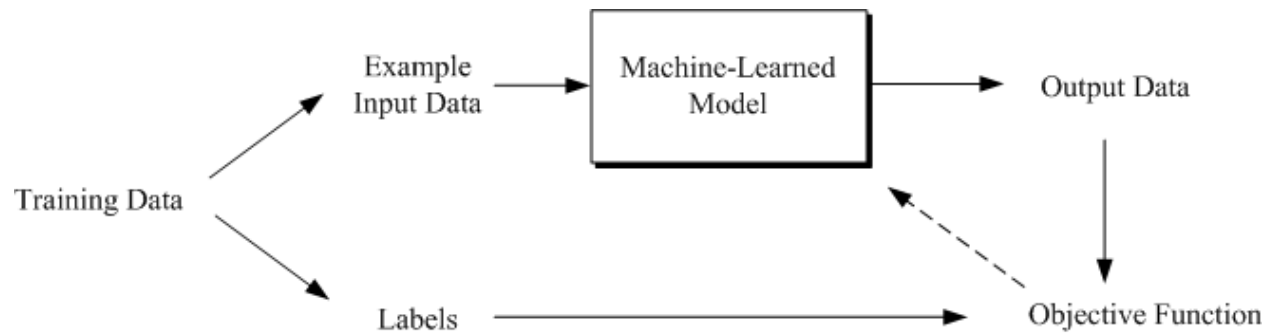


Figure 5

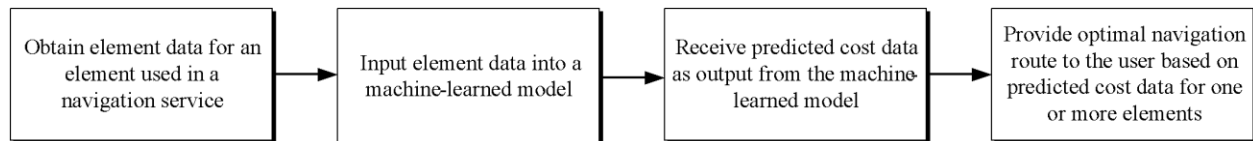


Figure 6